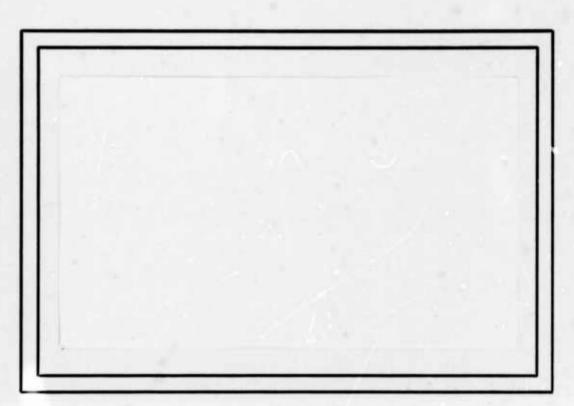
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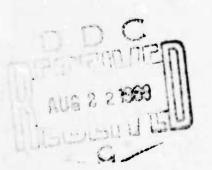


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Separable graphs, planar graphs and web grammars

by

G. Ugo Montanari

#### RESEARCH PROGRESS REPORT

- <u>Title</u>: "Separable graphs, planar graphs and web grammars", G. U. Montanari, University of Maryland Computer Science Center Technical Report 69-96, August 1969; Contract Nonr-5144(00).
- Background: The Computer Science Center of the University of Maryland is investigating the theory of image processing by computer. One area under study is the theory of "grammars" whose "languages" are sets of labelled directed graphs.
- Condensed Report Contents: This paper is concerned with the class of "web grammars", introduced by Pfaltz and Rosenfeld, whose languages are sets of labelled graphs. A slightly modified definition of web grammar is given, in which the rewriting rules can have an applicability condition, and it is proved that in general, this extension does not increase the generative power of the grammar. This extension is useful, however, for otherwise it is not possible to incorporate negative contextual conditions into the rules, since the context of given vertex can be unbounded. A number of web grammars are presented which define interesting classes of graphs, including unseparable graphs, unseparable planar graphs and planar graphs. All the grammars in this paper use "normal embeddings" in which the connections between the web that is written and the host web are conserved, so that any rewriting rule affects the web only locally.
- For Further Information: The complete report is available in the major Navy technical libraries and can be obtained from the Defense Documentation Center. A few copies are available for distribution by the author.

### 1. Introduction

A major problem in picture interpretation and description is the extension of the basic ideas and methods developed for string grammars to structures which are interconnected in more general ways. A number of different approaches have been studied in the literature (see the review paper [1]). The most recent, and also the most general and flexible theory has been introduced by Pfaltz and Rosenfeld in [2]. They apply the rewriting procedure typical of string grammar to general labelled graphs or "webs". Examples of web grammars are given in [2] for trees, series-parallel networks, Pascal triangles and other interesting classes of graphs.

The extension of string language theory to webs is by no means trivial; there are special problems associated with it. Examples are the "embedding" of the rewritten webs [2], and the impossibility of incorporating negative contextual conditions into the rules. This latter fact is due to the unboundness of the context of a vertex in a graph (see Section 2 of this paper).

The web grammar approach has several potential advantages. Graph theory constitutes a well developed and well studied field, in which, perhaps with some generalization, the various notations introduced in the picture grammar literature can be unified. At the same time, the possibility of deriving families of graphs by rewriting initial graphs according to finite sets of rules may be useful to graph theorists as well,

because this method both standardizes and generalizes the induction procedures frequently used in graph theory. Important properties of the derived class of graphs can often be proved by simple inspection of the rules, as in the case of the Euler relation for plane graphs (see Section 4).

Section 2 of this paper discusses the definition of a web grammar. In particular, it is shown that the addition of an "applicability condition" to the rules of the grammar does not change the generative power of the grammar, because an equivalent grammar without applicability conditions can always be found. A new class of web grammars, called "monotone web grammars", that seems to be more general than contextsensitive web grammars, is then introduced. (The proof of equivalence of the monotone and contextsensitive classes of grammars, given by Chomsky in [3] in the case of string languages, does not apply to web languages.) The concept of indirect generation of a language is then introduced. Both these generalizations allow more freedom in designing web grammars, while still leaving it decidable whether or not a given web belongs to the language of a given web grammar.

In Section 3 a grammar for nonseparable graphs is first presented. The notion of separability web of a graph is then introduced, and a grammar for generating such webs is shown. Finally, a grammar for generating the graphs having a given separability tree is given. Section 4 gives grammars for various classes of planar graphs; some of them simultaneously generate a dual graph. Finally, it is shown that the four color conjecture for planar graphs can be reduced to the equivalence of the languages of two web grammars.

#### 2. Web Grammars

In this section, we introduce web grammars and the related terminology. Our definition is very similar to that of Pfaltz and Rosenfeld; the only difference is that we allow a rewriting rule to be applied only if a specified condition is satisfied. However, the introduction of applicability conditions is only a matter of convenience in expressing contextual restrictions. In fact, we will prove that the generative power of web grammars is not increased in this way.

Let V be a finite set, which we will call the vocabulary; the elements of V will be called symbols. A directed web W over V is a triple  $(N_W, F_W, A_W)$  where  $N_W$  is a set of vertices,  $F_W$  is a labelling function from  $N_W$  into V, and  $A_W$  is a set of ordered pairs of elements of  $N_W$  which are called arcs. If V has only one element, webs are clearly equivalent to graphs. Given a web W =  $(N_W, F_W, A_W)$  over V, the web  $S = (N_S, F_S, A_S)$  over the same V is called a subweb of W if:

- a)  $N_S$  is a subset of  $N_W$
- b)  $F_S(X) = F_W(X)$  if  $X \in N_S$
- c)  $A_S$  consists of just those pairs in  $A_W$  whose terms are both in  $N_S$ .

Undirected webs are defined analogously; they can be regarded as a special case of directed webs in which, between any pair of vertices P and Q, either no arc exists, or both of the arcs (P, Q) and (Q, P) are present. All of the web grammars defined in the later sections of this paper are for undirected webs.

A web grammar G is a finite entity which allows us, in general, to define an infinite set of webs, called the language of G. Formally, G is a triple (V, I, R). V is the vocabulary; it consists of two disjoint parts, a  $\underline{\text{nonterminal}}$  vocabulary  $V_{\underline{N}}$  and a  $\underline{\text{terminal}}$  vocabulary I is a finite set of initial webs over V. R is a finite set of rewriting rules. Every rewriting rule, if applicable, specifies what changes must be made to a given web. Formally, a rewriting rule is a quadruple  $(\alpha, C, \beta, E)$  where  $\alpha, \beta$  are webs, C is a logical function called the contextual condition of the rule, and E is a set of logical functions called the embedding of the rule. The rule is applicable to a web W if  $\alpha$  is a subweb of W and C is true. The effect of the application of the rule is to replace a subweb  $\alpha$  of W with the web B. The logical functions of E specify the embedding of β in W-α; that is, they specify whether or not each vertex of  $W-\alpha$  is connected to each vertex of  $\beta$ . Note that E must be well-defined for every web W to which the rule is applicable. Both C and E will typically depend on the labels, or the number, of vertices of W connected with some vertex of  $\alpha$ ; however, in general they can depend on the entire W and on the particular subweb a of W which is to be rewritten.

The <u>language</u>  $L_G$  generated by G consists of those webs on  $V_T$  that can be derived from the initial webs by applying the rewriting rules any number of times, in any order. Two grammars are <u>equivalent</u> if they generate the same language. For example, the following web grammar G(V, I, R), with one symbol and one re-

writing rule, has as language the set of directed binary trees with least point:

$$V_{N} = \emptyset$$
;  $V_{T} = \{t\}$ ;  $V = \{t\}$   
 $I = \{t\}$ 

 $R = \{\begin{pmatrix} t \\ L_1 \end{pmatrix}; \text{ in W there must not exist more than one} \}$  arc from  $L_1$ ;  $t = t \\ R_1 = R_2$ ; all the vertices of W that were connected with  $L_1$  are connected with  $R_1$ , and no vertex is connected with  $R_2$ ). In fact, it can be immediately proved by induction that in any web generated by this grammar, there is a unique path from the initial point to any other point. Furthermore, the applicability condition prevents the creation of vertices from which there are arcs to more than two vertices. Conversely, any binary tree with k+1 vertices can be derived from a suitable tree with k vertices by adding one arc and one vertex.

The embeddings used in all the rules considered in this paper will always be of the same type as that in the example just given: an arc between  $\alpha$  and W- $\alpha$  is never created or deleted, but simply shifted to a vertex of  $\beta$ . How the shifting is done will be specified with the aid of indices assigned to the vertices of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ; we have denoted these by letters of the form  $L_i$  (ith vertex of the left member of the rule) and  $R_i$ . The embedding is defined by a function from the set of vertices of  $\alpha$  into the set of vertices of  $\beta$ . If a vertex P of  $\beta$  is the image of a collection of vertices of  $\alpha$ , all of the arcs between W- $\alpha$  and these vertices

of  $\alpha$  in the original web W become arcs to or from P in the rewritten web. If a vertex of  $\beta$  is not the image of any vertex of  $\alpha$ , there are no arcs between it and W- $\alpha$  in the rewritten web. A useful special case is that in which the function is one-to-one (as it is in the binary tree example); such an embedding will be called normal. If all the rules of a web grammar G have normal embedding, the grammar will be called normal.

As remarked at the beginning of this section, we have introduced the function C in order to allow an explicit statement of contextual conditions (\*) on the application of a rewriting rule. If the desired condition is a "positive" one (for example: a vertex of  $W-\alpha$  with a given label must be connected by an arc to a given vertex of  $\alpha$ ), it is very easy to embody this context in the rule by enlarging its left member (see [2], pp. 614-616). On the other hand, if the contextual condition is "negative", as in our binary tree example, there is no way of expressing it by enlarging the webs of the rule. This is one of the important differences between string grammars and web grammars. In fact, in string languages, the number of symbols which can precede or follow a given symbol is finite, since the the alphabet is finite. Thus a rule forbidding a symbol can be replaced by a finite set of rules requiring each of the other symbols. On the other hand, in web languages, there is no limit on the number of

<sup>(\*)</sup> If one uses a web grammar for <u>parsing</u> webs rather than generating them, the contextual conditions become embeddings (and vice versa); this is another reason why contextual conditions are desirable.

vertices which can be connected with a given vertex, so that a finite number of rules cannot in general be sufficient. In simple cases a slightly more complicated grammar without negative contextual conditions can often be constructed. In the general case, the following theorem shows how contextual conditions can always be included in the embedding part of the rule, so that the equivalence to the Pfaltz and Rosenfeld definition is proved. However, the resulting grammars are somewhat tricky, and the normal embedding, if present, is lost.

Theorem 1. Given any web grammar G, a web grammar H equivalent to G can always be found, such that the rules of H have no applicability conditions (i.e., the logical functions C are always true).

<u>Proof.</u> Let  $G = (V_G, I_G, R_G)$  and  $V_G = V_{NG} \cup V_{TG}$ . The terminal vocabulary of H must obviously be equal to  $V_{TG}$ . The nonterminal vocabulary of H consists of  $V_{NG}$  together with an extra symbol \*. The initial webs of H are obtained from the webs of  $I_G$  by adding two isolated vertices labelled \* to each of them. The rules of H are as follows:

a) A set of rules that can be obtained from the rules of G by the following procedure: An isolated vertex labelled \* is added to the left and right members. Logical function C is always true. The embedding is the same, as far as vertices not labelled \* are concerned. Furthermore, an arc is added from the vertex labelled \* of the right

member to the other vertex labelled \* if the contextual condition of the corresponding rule of G is not satisfied, or if the two vertices labelled \* were already connected.

#### b) The rule $* * \rightarrow \emptyset$

If web W  $\in$  L<sub>G</sub>, then W  $\in$  L<sub>H</sub>. In fact, given any derivation of W in G, it is possible to derive W by also applying first the corresponding rules of H and finally rule (b). Conversely, if W  $\in$  L $_{H}$  then W  $\in$  L $_{G}$ . In fact, given any derivation of W in H, rule (b) must have been applied exactly once, because no vertex labelled with the nonterminal symbol \* is created in any rule, and furthermore it must be the last rule applied, because all the other rules require a \*-vertex. Moreover, any time a rule of H has been applied, the condition for the application of the corresponding rule of G must have been satisfied, since otherwise an arc between the two vertices labelled \* would have been created, which would never have been removed and which would have prevented the application of rule (b). Thus a parallel derivation of W in G can be found. //

Different classes of web grammars can be defined according to what restrictions are imposed on the rewriting rules. If for every rule (rewriting  $\alpha$  into  $\beta$ ) a vertex P exists in  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha$  -{P} is a proper subweb of  $\beta$  (i.e., one point only is rewritten, and not erased), and if the connections between  $\alpha$  -{P} and W- $\alpha$  are not changed by E, the web grammar is called context-sensitive. If we compare context sensitive web grammars with context sensitive string grammars

we see that the latter are interesting because they are very general, and at the same time they have the following remarkable properties ([3], pp. 143-144):

- a) the derivation of any string of the language is representable by a directed tree;
- b) the problem of whether or not a given string belongs to a given language is solvable.

The second property is particularly important for practical purposes. It follows directly from the fact that under application of the rules, the lengths of strings are monotonically non-decreasing, so that only a finite number of derivations need be tested for any given finite length string. For string grammars, Chomsky ([3], p. 145) has proved also the converse: if all the rules of a grammar G are of the type  $\phi \rightarrow Y$  with Y at least as long as φ, then it is possible to construct a context sensitive grammar G' equivalent to G. In the grammar G' a set of rules is substituted for every rule of G, such that if the first rule of the set is used, all the others must be applied in sequence, or else a terminal string cannot be achieved. The same type of reasoning does not seem to work for web grammars. In fact, if a rule of G applies to two different subwebs  $\alpha'$  and  $\alpha''$  of a web W, the sequences of rules of G' applied to  $\alpha'$  and  $\alpha''$  may "interfere". Thus context-sensitive web grammars clearly have the essential properties (a) and (b) above, but they seem to be comparatively less powerful. In some grammars that

we report in this paper, we have found it convenient to use only the restriction that in any rule, \$ has no fewer vertices than α. Such grammars will be called monotone.(\*) As mentioned above, this condition is sufficient for assuring decidability. In some cases this restriction too is strong, because it is desirable to create "auxiliary" vertices in the derivation (for example, in Theorem 1), and in a monotone grammar they cannot be erased. On the other hand, in some cases the "auxiliary" vertices have a special significance of their own; for instance, in the grammar for planar graphs given in Section 4, they constitute a "dual graph". In these cases we prefer to preserve the monotonicity of the grammar, and to consider the desired webs as subwebs of the webs generated by the grammar. More formally, we say that a web language L is indirectly generated by a grammar G if:

- a) the vocabulary  $V_L$  of L is a subset of the terminal vocabulary  $V_{TC}$  of G;
- b) the language L conists of just the <u>subwebs</u> of the terminal webs generated by G whose vertices are labelled with symbols belonging to  $V_L$ :
- c) in any web generated by G, in which N vertices are labelled with symbols of  $\rm V_L$ , the number of vertices labelled with symbols of  $\rm V_G-V_L$  cannot exceed a fixed value  $\rm M_N$ .

Note that property (c) assures that it is always decidable whether a given web belongs to a language indirectly generated by a given grammar. For instance, in Theorem

<sup>(\*)</sup> Note that a normal grammar is always monotone.

l, if G is context sensitive (monotone), a context sensitive (monotone) grammar without applicability conditions that indirectly generates  $\mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{G}}$  can be found by simply substituting for rule (b) of the grammar H the following rule:

# \* \* - t t

where t is the only terminal symbol of H that does not belong to  $\mathbf{V}_{\underline{\mathbf{I}}}$ .

A special case of context sensitive web grammars is that of context free web grammars. In such a grammar, there are no applicability conditions on the rules, and the left member of each rule consists of only one vertex.

## 3. Separable and nonseparable graphs

A connected graph (\*) G is called <u>separable</u> [4] if it has two subgraphs  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ , having at least one arc, such that every arc of G belongs to either  $F_1$  or  $F_2$ , while  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  have exactly one vertex V in common. Vertex V will be called a <u>cut vertex</u>. If two such subgraphs cannot be found, the G is called <u>non-separable</u>. Nonseparable graphs can be also defined by means of a web grammar, as proved in the following theorem:

Theorem 2: The context sensitive, normal web grammar of Fig. 1, with one terminal symbol and without applicability conditions, generates exactly all connected nonseparable webs (\*\*).

Proof: Only nonseparable webs. Whitney ([5], Th. 6) has proved that a necessary and sufficient condition for a graph to be separable is that three distinct vertices A,B,C exist such that every (simple) path from B to C passes through A. Reasoning by induction, both initial webs are nonseparable. Furthermore, if a web is nonseparable before the application of any rule, it is also nonseparable afterwards, because the application of any rule does not erase any possible path.

All nonseparable webs. Conversely, Whitney ([5], Th. 19) has shown that it is possible to build up any connected nonseparable graph containing more than two arcs by

<sup>(\*)</sup> In this and in the next section we will always be concerned with connected graphs having at least one arc, and without loops.

<sup>(\*\*)</sup> The above definitions relative to graphs can be immediately extended to webs.

starting with a circuit and adding to it arcs or chains of arcs. In our grammar, the only nonseparable graph with one arc belongs to the initial set, while an initial circuit of any length can be constructed from the initial triangle by recursive application of rule 2. The addition of an arc is performed by rule 1, and the addition of a chain of any length can be obtained by applying first rule 1 and then rule 2, recursively. //

If a graph G is separable, its components F, and F, can be either separable or not; if they are separable, they can in turn be broken up into components, and so Since the sum of the numbers of arcs of the components is equal, at any stage, to the number of arcs of the entire graph, we must eventually reach a situation in which all the components are nonseparable. These subgraphs of G are called the nonseparable components of G. Whitney ([5] Th. 12) has proved that the nonseparable components do not depend on the order in which the decomposition takes place. This decomposition can be represented as a partition of the arcs of the graph; a component is a subgraph that contains exactly all the arcs of some element of the partition. Cut vertices belong to the vertex sets of at least two components. The components are "connected" at cut vertices, but they never form a "circuit of graphs"(\*) ([5], Th. 17). A graph will be called arccomposite

<sup>(\*)</sup> That is, it is not possible to find a cyclic sequence of components such that any one of them has just one cut vertex in common with its predecessor and its successor.

if at least one of its components is a one-arc graph, i.e., consists of two vertices and one arc connecting them; nonarccomposite, otherwise. Note that a non-separable graph is arccomposite only if it is a one-arc graph.

Given any connected graph, we define the <u>separa-bility web</u> of the graph as follows: The vocabulary is {i, c}. Vertices labelled "i" are <u>internal</u> vertices while vertices labelled "c" are <u>connection</u> vertices.

Internal vertices are in correspondence with the non-separable components of the graph, while connection vertices correspond to cut vertices. An arc is traced between a connection vertex and an internal vertex of the separability web if the corresponding cut vertex belongs to the corresponding nonseparable component. The separability web of a given graph is unique, as an immediate consequence of the uniqueness of the decomposition.

The following theorem characterizes, and gives a web grammar for, separability webs:

Theorem 3: a) A web on the vocabulary {i, c} can be regarded as a separability web if and only if no circuit of arcs is present, every arc connects vertices labelled with different symbols, and every vertex which is connected with only one other vertex is labelled

"i". b) The normal, context free grammar in Fig. 2 generates just the set of all separability webs.

Proof: a) Only if part. This part is a direct consequence of the definition.

If part. Let N be the maximum number of vertices connected with any i-vertex. A complete graph on N vertices is associated with every i-vertex, and a one-to-one correspondence is defined between some vertices of this graph and all the c-vertices of the web connected with the i-vertex. A graph G is then constructed by coalescing the vertices of the complete graphs correspond to the same c-vertices of the web. The complete subgraphs are nonseparable, and by hypothesis no circuit of graphs is present. Therefore, according to Whitney ([5], Th. 17(1), (3)), the complete subgraphs are the nonseparable components of G. Thus the given web is the separability web of a graph G.

b) Webs generated by the grammar in Fig. 2 clearly satisfy the hypothesis of part(a) and therefore they are separability webs. Conversely, any separability web can be generated in this way. In fact, reasoning by induction, assume that the grammar generates all the separability webs with ki-vertices. Given a separability web W with k+li-vertices, an i-vertex P connected to only one c-vertex must exist - for, no C-vertex is of degree 1, and in a graph without circuits at least one vertex of degree 1 must exist. Let Q be the c-vertex connected to P. If Q is of degree greater than 2, then W - {P} is a separability web with ki-vertices and can be generated by the grammar. The last rule applied to Q in the derivation of W - {P} must be rule 4. Applying

<sup>(\*)</sup> If this number is 1, then let N = 2.

the rules 3 and 2 just before this rule, it is possible to derive W as well. If Q is of degree 2, let R be the other i-vertex connected to Q. The web W - {P, Q} is a separability web with k i-vertices and can be generated by the grammar. The last rule applied to R must be rule 2. Applying the rules 1, 4 and 2 just before this rule it is possible to derive W as well. //

We now give a more complicated example of a web grammar.

Theorem 4: Given any separability web (having more than one vertex) as initial web, the monotone, normal web grammar G in Fig. 3 indirectly generates all the separable graphs having the given initial web as separability web. [ Note that rule 10 in this grammar has a "negative" applicability condition. The language directly generated by G consists of the separable graphs with two extra vertices, labelled b and a, for every nonseparable component. The b-vertices are connected with all the vertices of the components, while a-vertices are connected only with the corresponding b-vertices.] Proof: All separable graphs, etc. Given an I-vertex P of the initial web, if the corresponding component is a one-arc graph, and if P is connected to one cvertex (two c-vertices), rule 2 (rule 4) must be applied. If the component corresponding to P has more than one arc and one, or two, or more than two c-vertices, rules 1, 3, or 5, respectively, must be used first. From the initial triangle, any nonseparable component with more than one arc can then be derived; the method is the same as that proved for the grammar in Fig. 1.

Rule 8 in Fig. 3 is the equivalent of rule 1 in Fig. 1, while rule 6 or 7 is the equivalent of rule 2, depending on whether the new vertex that must be inserted into the component is a cut vertex or not. Note that the connections of the c-vertices with the B-vertex assure that rules 6, 7 and 8 are applied to vertices belonging to the same component. Furthermore, in rule 6, the connection with the inserted vertex is shifted from the A-vertex to the B-vertex of the component. When the entire component has been built up, as proved in Theorem 2, all the corresponding cut vertices have been inserted, and thus rules 9 and 10 can be applied, because no vertex is now connected to the A-vertex of the component. Only separable graphs, etc. Let us consider a derivation of a web W. To any I-vertex of the initial web, one of the rules 1-5 must have been applied. If rule 2 or 4 was used, rules 6, 7 and 8 cannot have been applied to the b-vertex, so that the final rule 10 must have concluded the generation of a one-arc component. If rule 1, 3 or 5 was used, any application of rules 6, 7 or 8 preserves the nonseparability of the component, as proved by Theorem 2. When finally rules 9 and 10 apply to convert the nonterminal symbols A and B into the terminal symbols a and b, rule 6 must have already inserted all the cut vertices of the component, since otherwise the applicability condition of rule 10 would not be satisfied. //

It is very easy to see that if we do not allow indirectness, no monotone grammar exists for this language. In fact, there exist graphs which have fewer vertices than their separability webs. For instance, the separability web of the graph is  $I \subset I \subset I$ .

## 4. Planar graphs

A graph is called planar if it can be mapped onto the plane (or on the sphere: [5] p. 355). The regions into which it divides the plane will be called meshes. This definition is topological in character; however, some purely combinatorial equivalent definitions can be found. Kuratowsky [6] has proved that a graph is planar if and only if it contains no subgraphs having either of two specific forms. Whitney [5] has proved that a graph is planar if and only if it has a "dual". MacLane [4] has shown that a graph is planar if and only if a collection of "basic" circuits can be found, such that every arc of the graph is considered in this collection exactly twice. In this section, we give a characterization of planar graphs as indirectly generated by a monotone web grammar (or, as remarked in Section 2, as directly generated by a web grammar which allows vertex deletion).

Whitney's definition of dual is clearly independent of the particular mapping of the graph on the plane. However, his definition of dual coincides ([5], Th. 30) with the well-known definition in which a vertex of the dual corresponds to a mesh of the given plane (\*) connected graph, and two vertices of the dual are connected with an arc if the two corresponding meshes are adjacent to the same arc. This construction provides a one-to-one correspondence between the arcs of the plane graph and

<sup>(\*)</sup> A planar graph is called <u>plane</u> if it is considered as mapped on the plane.

those of the dual graph, and between the vertices of the plane graph and the meshes of the dual. Furthermore, the dual is plane and the dual of the dual is the given plane graph. Some difficulties arise in this definition of dual if only graphs without multiple edges are considered. This is the case if, as in our definition of a web in Section 2, arcs are defined as pairs of vertices. This definition is the most natural, and the most often used in graph theory. However, if some vertex of the graph is of degree two, i.e., if some arcs are serially connected, the above construction gives a dual with multiple edges. Thus, unless otherwise stated, we consider only plane graphs and webs without serially connected arcs. However, our results could be easily extended if a definition allowing multiple edges were given. On the other hand, no problem exists if the same mesh is adjacent to one arc on both sides; a loop is then generated in the dual. This happens in particular if a vertex of degree one exists in the graph.

Given a plane graph, for every vertex P it is possible to specify a cyclic sequence of meshes by examining, in counterclockwise order, the meshes adjacent to P.

Two successive meshes of the sequence are both adjacent to an arc connected to P. Note that this sequence can contain the same mesh more than once, possibly even in successive positions.

We can now prove the following theorem:

Theorem 5: a) A connected plane graph G is separable

if and only if a vertex P exists, such that its sequence

of meshes contains the same mesh more than once. Furthermore, P is a cut vertex of G.

b) A plane graph G is arccomposite if and only if an arc (P, Q) exists which is adjacent to the same region on both sides.

<u>Proof</u>: a) If the same mesh is present more than once in the sequence of meshes of vertex P, it means that a closed curve C passing through P can be traced, which does not intersect any other vertex or arc of the graph, and which partitions the graph in two subgraphs with at least one arc, having only the vertex in common. Thus, by definition, G is separable and P is a cut vertex. Conversely, if G is separable, it can be constructed by letting two vertices of two disconnected graphs coalesce in P, so that a curve C as above can be found.

b) The one-arc subgraph S is a nonseparable component of G if and only if no circuit exists in G to which the arc of S belongs ([4], p. 24). This is equivalent to saying that a closed curve intersecting only (P, Q) can be found. //

Given a plane graph, assume that a <u>simple</u> closed plane curve exists with the following properties:

- a) The curve intersects the plane graph only at vertices. [As a consequence of this first property, the segment of curve between two adjacent intersection vertices belongs entirely to a single mesh, and the number of intersection vertices and meshes is equal.]
- b) Different segments of the curve belong to different meshes.

If such a curve exists, it will be called a <a href="cut curve">cut curve</a> of the plane graph. Note that property (b) is dual to the simplicity of the curve.

Given a plane graph and a cut curve, the vertices and meshes of the graph are evidently partitioned into three classes: internal, boundary and external vertices and meshes, while only internal and external arcs can be distinguished. We can now prove the following Lemma. Lemma 1: Given a nonarccomposite plane graph G without loops, and a cut curve, it is always possible to find an internal arc with the following properties:

- a) One vertex and one mesh adjacent to the arc are a boundary vertex and a boundary mesh (\*);
- b) the other vertex (the graph is without loops) is either an internal vertex or a boundary vertex adjacent to the first vertex;
- c) the other mesh (the graph is nonarccomposite) is either an internal mesh, or a boundary mesh adjacent to the first mesh.

Proof: At least one arc satisfying condition (a) is connected with every boundary vertex, since otherwise two adjacent segments of the cut curve would belong to the same mesh. Furthermore, at least one of these arcs (and actually two, if more than one internal arc exists at that vertex) is adjacent to a boundary mesh, as is easy to see by examining the sequence of meshes of the vertex. Conditions (b) and (c) too are clearly satisfied by some of these arcs if the number of boundary vertices (and meshes) is three or less, because in this case the first vertex (mesh) is adjacent to all the other vertices (meshes). Now we assume that the number of boundary vertices is four or more, and that

<sup>(\*)</sup> Clearly the mesh belongs to the sequence of meshes of the vertex.

no arc satisfying condition (a) also satisfies conditions (b) and (c). If an arc satisfies (a) but does not satisfy (b), it means that it connects two nonadjacent boundary vertices. Let (P, Q) be an arc which satisfies condition (a) (i.e., P is a boundary vertex and the first mesh M is a boundary mesh) but which does not satisfy condition (c) because the second mesh N is a boundary mesh not adjacent to M. Let R and S be the boundary vertices that are the endpoints of the segment of the cut curve belonging to N. Thus  $R \neq P$  and  $S \neq P$ , and either R or S (or both), say R, is not adjacent to P, since if P, R, S were pairwise adjacent they would have to be the only three boundary vertices. Therefore mesh N is adjacent to P and to a vertex R not adjacent to P. Thus a new plane graph can be obtained by adding the arc (P, R) to G. In conclusion, if condition (b) or (c) is not satisified, a new plane graph G' can be constructed in which every boundary vertex is connected by an internal arc with at least one nonadjacent boundary vertex. (\*)

We will now show that G' cannot be plane, so that we have reached a contradiction. Fig. 4 shows this fact in the case of four boundary vertices. On the other hand, it is possible to prove that if such a plane graph G' exists in the case of n (n > 4) boundary vertices, it exists also for n-1 vertices. In fact, given a plane graph G' with n boundary vertices, if redundant arcs are erased, any arc (P, Q) is the only

<sup>(\*)</sup> If it is condition (b) which fails to hold for every boundary vertex, no construction is necessary.

internal arc connected with either P or Q (or both), say P. If R and S are the boundary vertices adjacent to P, vertex Q cannot be adjacent to both of them (otherwise n = 4). Let Q be not adjacent to R. Therefore the vertex P can be erased and the arc (P, Q) can be replaced by the arc (R, Q), obtaining a plane graph with (n - 1) boundary vertices. //

We can now give web grammars for various classes of planar graphs. The simplest one is introduced by the following theorem.

Theorem 6: The normal, monotone web grammar of Fig. 5 indirectly generates exactly all nonarccomposite planar graphs. More precisely, this grammar directly generates exactly all nonarccomposite planar graphs and their duals (without serially connected arcs, or arcs in parallel; see the remarks at the beginning of this section).(\*)

Proof: All planar graphs, etc. Given any such graph, let us consider a plane representation of this graph. We shall construct a copy of this graph and of its dual by applying the rules of the grammar in Fig. 5. We will prove by induction that it is possible to find a sequence of cut curves such that the external part of the graph represents the part already copied, and that it is possible to construct the next step in the copy by applying a rule of the grammar. More precisely, at a given stage of application of the grammar, the vertices of the copy that correspond to external vertices are labelled "a", the boundary vertices are labelled "A", the vertices of the dual which correspond to ex-

<sup>(\*)</sup> If a planar graph has more than one plane representation, and thus more than one dual (i.e., if it is not triply connected), all the possible duals can be derived with this grammar.

ternal meshes are labelled "b", and boundary mesh dual vertices are labelled "B". All external arcs and the corresponding arcs in the dual are present in the copy The cut curve is represented in the copy web by a circuit of arcs connecting the A- and B-vertices. Every A-vertex (B-vertex) is connected neither with any A-vertex (B-vertex) nor with any b-vertex (a-vertex), but it is connected with exactly two B-vertices (A-vertices) and possibly with some a-vertices (b-vertices). The first cut curve is found as crossing the two adjacent vertices and the two adjacent meshes of any arc adjacent to the unbounded mesh of the plane graph. Furthermore this first cut curve must contain all the graph, except the initial arc. Correspondingly, rule 1 is applied to the initial web. Now, given any cut curve, assume that the above described web has already been constructed. Then, according to Lemma 1, an internal arc can be found, of one of the following four types:

- a) one vertex and one mesh adjacent to the arc are on the boundary, the other vertex and the other mesh are internal.
- b) the two meshes of the arc are adjacent boundary meshes, one vertex is a boundary vertex, the other is an internal vertex.
- c) two adjacent boundary vertices, one boundary mesh and one internal mesh
- d) two adjacent boundary vertices and two adjacent boundary meshes.

In the above cases a, b, c, d, grammar rules 2, 3, 4, 5 respectively apply. Rule 6 must be applied instead of rule 5 if only one internal arc was present. can be immediately verified that the new A-B circuit corresponds to the cut curve obtained by adding the arc under consideration to the internal arcs, while the copy still satisfies the above characterization. In Fig. 6 we see the A-B circuit and the cut curve superimposed, before and after the application of the rules. Note that the new cut curve never passes twice through the same vertex or mesh, because the new vertices and meshes just introduced cannot, by the choice of the new arc, have been boundary vertices and meshes of the old cut curve. Every application of a rule of the grammar introduces an arc into the copy. Thus for a graph with n arcs it is necessary to apply the rules of the grammar exactly n times. At the end, i.e., after application of rule 6, two disconnected webs have been constructed: a copy of the given graph, labelled with "a", and a copy of its dual, labelled with "b".

Only planar graphs, etc. We will prove by induction that during the application of the grammar, the graph and its dual can be mapped onto the plane. Let us assume, in fact, that at a given stage, a web W has been generated in which the vertices labelled A and B form a circuit, with A's and B's alternating. All the other vertices, labelled a and b, if any, are outside. Let us consider now a web W' that is obtained by connecting all the A-vertices of W with an internal vertex, labelled c,

and connecting with an arc the pairs of B-vertices adjacent to the same A-vertex in the circuit. (If there are no A's and B's, the c-vertex need not be added, so that W' is the same as W.) We assume that the subgraph on the vertices of W' labelled c, A or a is a nonarccomposite plane graph G, while the subgraph on the vertices labelled B or b corresponds to its dual. Clearly, the circuit of A- and B-vertices is a cut curve of G. These assumptions are certainly true if only rule I has been applied to the initial web. Now apply any of rules 2-6 to the web W. It is immediate to verify that the above characterizations of webs W and W' is applicable to the new web. In particular, rule 2 increments by one each the number n of A- and B-vertices, rules 3 and 4 do not change n, rule 5 decrements n by one, while rule 6 decrements it by two. However, any rule allows the new arc it introduces to be mapped into the plane. Thus the new graph G is still plane, and is still nonarccomposite, because the added arc is adjacent to two different meshes (Theorem 5(b)). But at the last step, there can be no A's and B's left, so that W' is the same as W, and G is the graph which was indirectly generated by the grammar. //

Note that every rule has nonterminal symbols in its right member, except rule 6. Thus rule 6 must be the last rule used. But if rule 6 applies, the A-B circuit is eliminated, so that it can be applied only once.

Fig. 7 shows an example of the application of the grammar in Fig. 5 to the simplest possible nonarccomposite

planar graph. Here the rules applied, in succession, to obtain stages (a-f) were (1), (2), (4), (3), (5), (6). Other derivations of this graph are also possible.

Using this grammar it is very easy to prove the Euler relation between vertices, meshes and arcs for the generated planar graphs. In fact, let  $n_B$ ,  $n_a$  and  $n_b$  be the numbers of the vertices labelled B, a and b in a web W generated by the grammar at some step, and let us define the function  $f = n_B + n_a + n_b$ . It is easy to verify by simple inspection that f increases by one if rules 2-5 are applied, and increases by two if rules 1 or 6 are applied. But rules 1 and 6 are applied exactly once, and the application of any rule introduces one arc. Thus, if e is the total number of arcs, for every terminal web we have  $e + 2 = n_a + n_b$ , i.e., the Euler relation.

By modifying the grammar of Fig. 5, it is easy to obtain the grammar for nonseparable planar graphs shown in Fig. 8. This grammar is obtained from the grammar in Fig. 5 by introducing a new terminal symbol c. Then in rule 2, instead of simply disconnecting two boundary vertices, they are disconnected but at the same time are both connected to a c-vertex. The applicability condition of rule 5 assures that boundary vertices which have already been connected and then disconnected will not be connected again. The proof that this grammar actually works is given in the following Lemma and Theorem.

Lemma 2: Let us consider any derivation of a nonarccomposite planar graph and of its dual according to the grammar of Theorem 6. The vertices of the graph (of the dual) are labelled A(B) when they are on the boundary, and are rewritten with the terminal symbol a(b) when they become internal vertices. Given an A-vertex P of the graph, a B-vertex Q of the dual has been connected to and disconnected from P during the derivation exactly as many times as the mesh corresponding to Q appears in the sequence of meshes of P.

Proof: In the application of any rule of the grammar of Theorem 6 an A-vertex and a B-vertex appear together in the right or left web of the rule if and only if the arc introduced by this rule is connected to the A-vertex and is adjacent to the mesh corresponding to the B-vertex. In fact, in Theorem 6 it has been shown that in the derivation of any web the two arcs introduced by any rule are corresponding arcs of a plane graph and of its dual. On the other hand, in a plane nonarccomposite graph, if a mesh M appears n times in the mesh sequence of a vertex P, then there exist exactly 2n arcs connected to P and adjacent to M. In fact, M cannot be adjacent to the same arc on both sides, by Theorem 5(b). Thus in any derivation of this graph, the vertex P and the vertex Q of the dual corresponding to M have appeared in the same rewritten web exactly 2n times. Note now that if an A- and a B-vertex are disconnected (or any of them does not exist) before the application of any rule, then they are connected afterwards, and if they are connected before the application of any rule, then they are disconnected (and possibly relabelled) afterwards. Therefore P and Q have been connected and disconnected exactly n times. //

Theorem 7: The normal, monotone grammar of Fig. 8 indirectly generates all nonseparable planar graphs.

Proof: According to Theorem 5(a-b), the class of nonseparable planar graphs is obtained from the class of nonarccomposite planar graphs by eliminating all the graphs with the same mesh adjacent twice to the same vertex, and adding the one-arc graph. In the grammar of Fig. 8, this graph is added as an initial graph, while the applicability condition of rule 5, according to Lemma 2, does not allow the derivation of graphs with the same mesh adjacent twice to the same vertex. //

By adding some simple rules to the grammar of Theorem 6, it is possible to obtain a grammar that generates all planar graphs, as proved in the following theorem.

Theorem 8: The normal, monotone grammar of Fig. 9 indirectly generates exactly all planar graphs.

Proof: All planar graphs. Given a planar graph G, for each cut vertex, let us consider the union of all the components having more than one arc and having the given cut vertex in common; this is a subgraph of G. We obtain in this way the decomposition of G into nonarccomposite pieces and one-arc graphs. Now let us assume that there is at least one nonarccomposite piece N in this decomposition; otherwise G is a tree and can be obtained from the initial web a a by applying rule 7, as in the grammar for binary trees in Section 2. N can be constructed using the initial web and rules 1 - 6.

All the one-arc graphs (\*) having a cut vertex in common with N can then be constructed using rule 7 or 8. Rule 8 must be used (case (a)) if the other vertex of the one-arc graph is a cut vertex belonging to a nonarccomposite piece, rule 7 if the other vertex does not belong to such a piece, but is either (case (b)) a cut vertex common to one or more other one-arc graphs or (case (c)) is not a cut vertex. In case (a), a new nonarccomposite piece can be derived using rules 1 - 6 and in case (b) the new one-arc components can be derived using rule 7 This procedure can be iterated until all the components have been derived. In fact, the graph is connected, and if some component would have more than one cut vertex in common with the already derived components, a circuit of graphs would be present, which would constitute a single nonseparable component ([5], Th. 16).

Only planar graphs. The application of rule

7 to any terminal or nonterminal web surely leaves
planar the subweb consisting of all the a-vertices.
The application of rule 8 generates a new S-vertex,
from which a new nonarccomposite component can be
generated. The derivation of this component does not
interfere with the derivation of any other component,
because the A-B circuit generated for this component
has no vertex in common with the A-B circuit of any other compo-

<sup>\*</sup> Note that, by construction, only one-arc components can have a common vertex with N.

nent. This property can be proved by induction: it is true for the first A-B circuit generated by rule 1, and rules 2 - 6 apply only to A- and B-vertices belonging to the same circuit. Thus the assertion follows from the fact that if the components of a graph are planar, the graph is planar ([5], Th. 27). //

An interesting class of problems in graph theory is concerned with the least number of colors necessary for coloring the vertices of the graphs of a given family in such a way that every arc connects vertices of different color. An especially challenging problem arises in the case of planar graphs. For this family of graphs, five colors have been proved sufficient, and four colors necessary; the so-called four color conjecture says that four colors are also sufficient. The proof of this conjecture can easily be shown equivalent to determining if the languages of two web grammars  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are equal. G, is the grammar in Fig. 5 (\*). In G, every rule is concerned with a pair of A-vertices which can possibly be generated or relabelled by the rule. In any case, the arc created by the rule connects either A-vertices or corresponding relabelled vertices.  $G_2$  is derived from  $G_1$ by the following procedure. Instead of the nonterminal symbol A, four symbols A<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>2</sub>, A<sub>3</sub> and A<sub>4</sub> are used.. Twelve rules are substituted for each of the rules 2, 3 and 5, such that all the possible pairs of different symbols among the four symbols  $A_1$   $A_2$   $A_3$  and  $A_4$  replace

<sup>(\*)</sup> It is obvious that if any nonarccomposite planar graph were four colorable, the same would be true for any planar graph.

the pair of A symbols. Only six rules need to be substituted for each of the rules 1, 4, 6, because of symmetry. The language of this second grammar is clearly the class of nonarccomposite four-colorable planar graphs (\*). In fact, any derivation in  $G_2$  has a parallel derivation in  $G_1$  and defines a coloring of the terminal graph, while given a derivation in  $G_1$ , and a coloring of the terminal graph, a derivation in  $G_2$  can be found.

<sup>(\*)</sup> In general, by using n new symbols, the class of nonarccomposite n-colorable planar graphs is obtained.

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## Figure captions

- Fig. 1 This normal, context sensitive web grammar generates exactly all the nonseparable graphs
- Fig. 2 This normal, context-free web grammar generates exactly all the separability webs
- Fig. 3 This normal, monotone web grammar, given a separability web as initial web, indirectly generates exactly all the separable graphs having the given web as separability web.

  Note the applicability condition on rule 10
- Fig. 4 This graph cannot be planar
- Fig. 5 This normal, ne notone web grammar indirectly generates exactly all nonarccomposite planar graphs
- Fig. 6 Superposition of the A-B circuit and of the cut curve in applying the rules of the grammar in Fig. 5
- Fig. 7 An example of application of the web grammar in Fig. 5
- Fig. 8 This normal, monotone web grammar indirectly generates exactly all nonseparable planar graphs. Note the applicability condition on rule 5
- Fig. 9 This normal, monotone web grammar indirectly generates exactly all planar graphs

$$V_{N} = \{A\}$$
 ;  $V_{T} = \{t\}$ 

$$I = \left\{ \stackrel{A}{\bigvee} \stackrel{A}{\bigwedge} , \underbrace{t \ t} \right\}$$



Fig. 1. This normal, context sensitive web grammar generates exactly all the nonseparable graphs

Note: In all of the figures, the vertices that correspond under the normal embedding are shown in corresponding positions.

$$V_{N} = \{S, A\}$$
 ;  $V_{T} = \{i, c\}$ 

$$I = \{\S\}$$

1) 
$$\stackrel{S}{\bullet}$$
  $\stackrel{A}{\longrightarrow}$ 

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
s & & i \\
\bullet & & \longrightarrow & \bullet
\end{array}$$

Fig. 2. This normal, context free web grammar generates exactly all the separability webs

$$V_N = \{I, A, B\}$$
;  $V_T = \{a, b, c\}$ ;  $V_L = \{c\}$ 

$$I = \{any \text{ separability web; internal vertices labelled I, cut vertices labelled c}\}$$

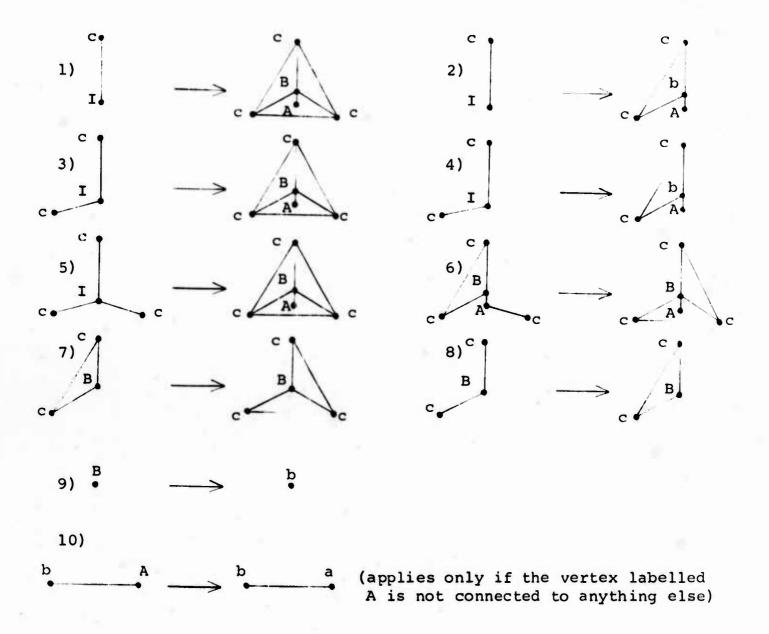


Fig. 3. This normal, monotone web grammar, given a separability web as initial web, indirectly generates exactly all the separable graphs having the given web as separability web.

Note the applicability condition on rule 10.

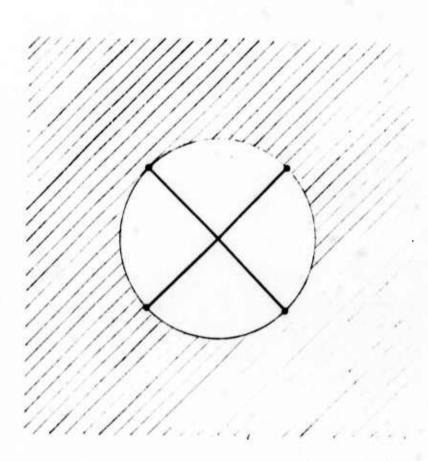


Fig. 4. This graph cannot be planar

$$V_{N} = \{S, A, B\}$$
;  $V_{T} = \{a, b\}$ ;  $V_{L} = \{a\}$   
 $I = \{S\}$ 

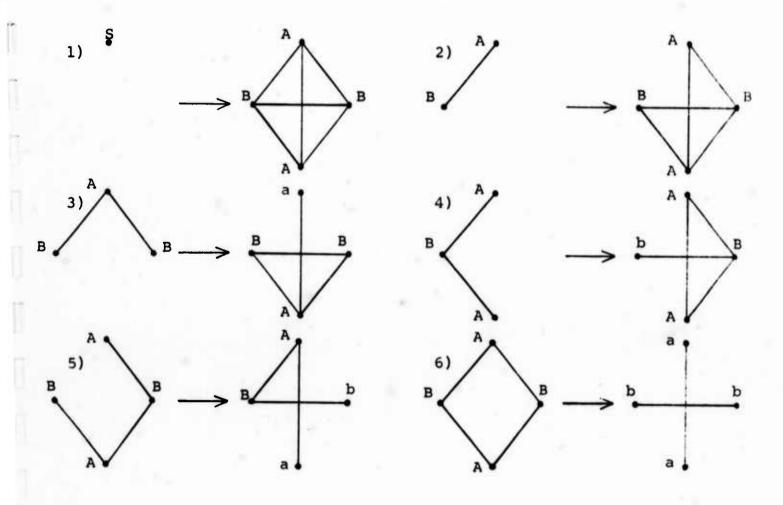


Fig. 5. This normal, monotone web grammar indirectly generates exactly all nonarccomposite planar graphs

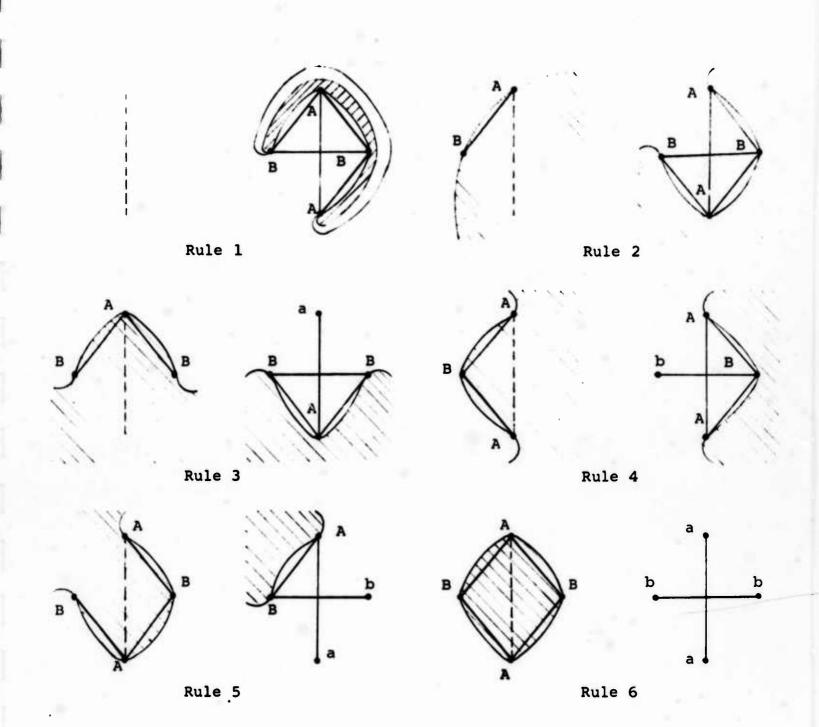


Fig. 6. Superposition of the A-B curcuit and of the cut curve in applying the rules of the grammar in Fig. 5

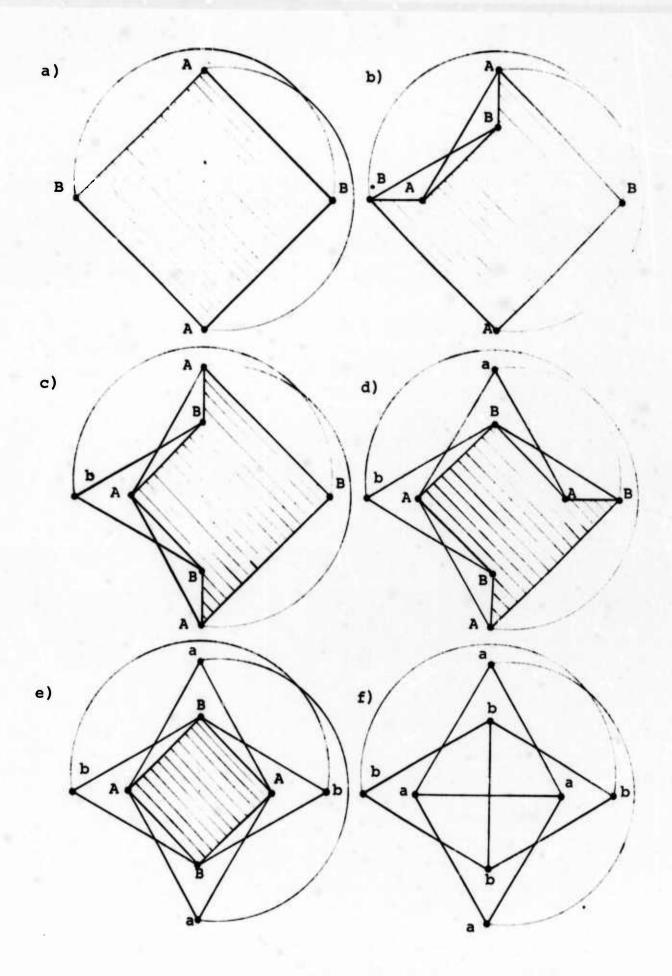


Fig. 7. An example of application of the web grammar in Fig. 5

$$V_{N} = \{S, A, B\}$$
;  $V_{T} = \{a, b, c\}$ ;  $V_{L} = \{a\}$ 

$$I = \{S, a a\}$$

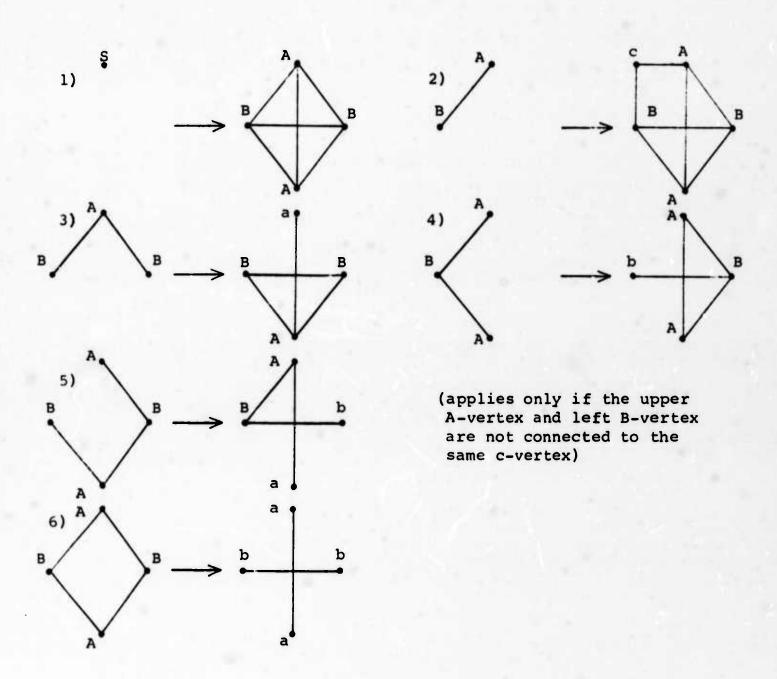


Fig. 8. This normal, monotone web grammar indirectly generates exactly all nonseparable planar graphs. Note the applicability condition on rule 5.

$$V_{N} = \{S, A, B\}$$
;  $V_{T} = \{a, b\}$ ;  $V_{L} = \{a\}$   
 $I = \{S, a a\}$ 

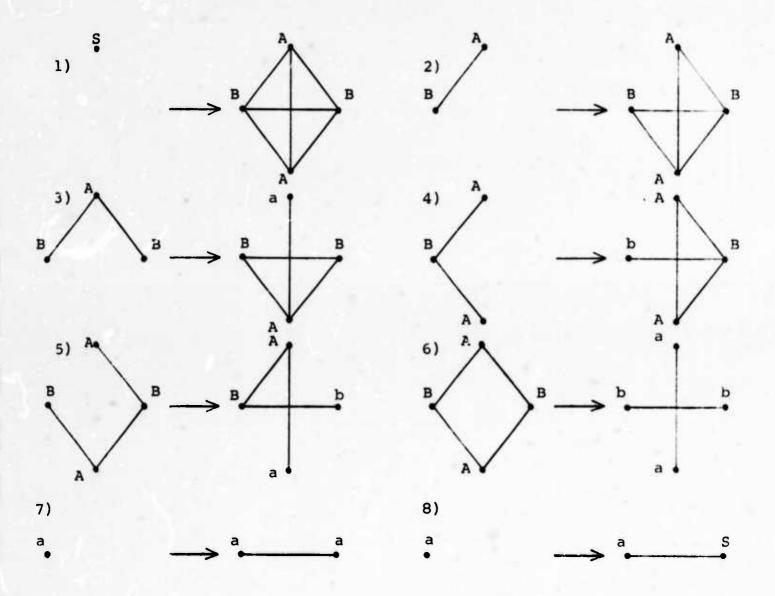


Fig. 9. This normal, monotone web grammar indirectly generates exactly all planar graphs

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This paper is concerned with the class of "web grammars", introduced by Pfaltz and Rosenfeld, whose languages are sets of labelled graphs. A slightly modified definition of web grammars is given, in which the rewriting rules can have an applicability condition, and it is proved that in general, this extension does not increase the generative power of the grammar. This extension is useful, however, for otherwise it is not possible to incorporate negative contextual conditions into the rules, since the context of given vertex can be unbounded. A number of web grammars are presented which define interest ing classes of graphs, including unseparable graphs, unseparable planar graphs and planar graphs. All the grammars in this paper use "normal embeddings" in which the connections between the web that is written and the host web are conserved, so that any rewriting rule affects the web only locally.

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